

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME V
NUMBER 7

SEPTEMBER, 1897

WHOLE
NUMBER 47

WHAT SHOULD THE MODERN SECONDARY SCHOOL AIM TO ACCOMPLISH?

II.

TO INSIST that the modern secondary school should minister to social aims does not mean that the secondary school should give a legal or political education, but it means that the school shall give a training that prepares for the duties of good citizenship; or, as it was phrased above, that prepares and stimulates the pupil to active and intelligent participation in promoting the welfare of society. Such preparation necessitates some comprehension of the nature of organized society, that is, of the institutions and activities which society maintains, encourages, and permits for its stability, perpetuity, and prosperity; that is, for the usefulness and happiness of its members. These institutions are, primarily, government or political institutions; industrial and commercial institutions and activities; and educational institutions. The education demanded by society, therefore, justly insists on instruction in subjects that acquaint the pupil with these activities and institutions, that develops an interest in them and the power to be of service in them. The principles and methods of municipal, state, and national government must be explained and made familiar to the pupil; he must also receive instruction that will help him to understand the complex relations of our modern industrial system; and he should know

something of the education by which society strives to conserve, improve, and transmit the progress it has made.

Some of this instruction is, as has been said already, partly and incidentally covered by courses in manual training and commercial courses; but it should be more directly and adequately provided for by courses in government and economics, or at least of industrial history, and by provision for some instruction in the history and present condition of education. Here, again, I wish to say that I am not unmindful of the existing provision for instruction in government and economics in secondary schools. My plea is for a more comprehensive and ultimately intensive study of these subjects, together with a much greater use of history in all its phases than, so far as I know, we have heretofore attempted anywhere. I am not pleading for forced exercises in the development of patriotism; but for exercises that shall reveal through the life struggles of our own and other nations, through the deeds and sacrifices of historical heroes, through a comprehension of the origin of our laws and our duty regarding them, the grounds on which a real patriotism is based. Such instruction can be safely relied on for the development of a real appreciation of the blessings of good government and an aversion to corruption and misrule that may furnish a strong incentive to action in municipal, state, or national affairs when the time for action comes.

The recent campaign, among its most practical lessons, teaches most clearly that the enlightenment of the citizens is the most important of public duties and the main condition of continued freedom. All should, as far as possible, contribute to that education which extends the area, not of the license urged on by anarchists and the utopias pictured by socialists, but of liberty as developed healthily and steadily in obedience to the lessons of history and constructive thought.¹

Such a result can be achieved only by recognizing that political and industrial or economic enlightenment necessarily go together. "Man is an economic animal as well as a political animal, and is therefore born into an industrial system as inevi-

¹ ANDREW D. WHITE, in the *Forum*, December 1896.

tably as he is born into a political state. Economic consciousness exists and will lead to economic action, just as surely as political consciousness has led to political action; and the question to be considered now is: How shall this economic consciousness best be enlightened and guided? Hitherto it has been left largely to the guidance of politicians, labor leaders, the press, and to the instructors in economics in the colleges and universities. And it must be admitted that for the future, also, by far the major part of the economic influence consciously exerted upon King Demos will continue to come directly from the first three of these four sources. They may be blind leaders of the blind, or the pillar of cloud by day and of fire by night, it matters not, the crowd will follow into the open ditch, or into the land flowing with milk and honey."¹ Shall we continue to delegate this instruction to such unenlightened, almost always prejudiced or partisan teachers?

Should we not rather provide in the secondary school for that great majority of our editors and politicians who are without a college education, the instruction that may help them to value a wise conservatism, and to recognize the comprehensiveness and the complexity of present-day political and economic problems and thus make them more intelligent and safer leaders of the people; and may we not hope through the same instruction to increase the number of men and women in the community who also appreciate the magnitude and difficulty of present-day problems and decline to be taken in by plausible but fallacious solutions? "As for the colleges and universities their ideal function is to be a guide to the guides, and they cannot be further considered here than to offer for them a fervent prayer, in passing, that they may be enabled to fulfill their ideal function."¹

No function of society is capable of exerting a greater permanent influence on the social welfare than education. And in this country there is no social function of more vital concern to the people. Shall we continue to entrust the administration of this important function, both in the home and in the school, to

¹ H. W. THURSTON, in the *SCHOOL REVIEW*, IV, 604.

persons who have no preparation whatever to guide them? It seems to me that instruction in the history of education, and some instruction in the present problems of and present tendencies in education should be given in every secondary school. Such instruction would give a much-needed public insight into present educational aims and practices in the light of their historical evolution, and an intelligent interest in important contemporary problems. Besides, can any one doubt the beneficent influence of such instruction on the education of children in the home, and on the promotion of the much-needed effective and sympathetic coöperation between the home and the school, a coöperation which is as far removed from meddlesome interference on the one hand as it is from indifference on the other?

The intrinsic importance of the vocational and social aims are obvious. But another reason why so much stress has been laid on these aims is because through them alone is it possible in my opinion in many schools—for nearly half the pupils, I mean most of the boys—to realize culture aims. Girls and young women are attracted by the culture aims to a far greater extent than boys and young men. The boys have so many interests outside of the intellectual life of the school from which the girls are practically excluded, that for many of them the culture aims of the school shrink into insignificance; and their achievements, such as they are, are due chiefly to the insistence of parents and teachers, or to the influence of impending examinations for admission to college. The difference between the application and zest of boys and girls in the secondary school was well summed up in my presence by a high-school youngster who was twitted by a schoolmate, a girl, on the inferior achievements of the boys as compared with the girls. He said: "Hm, the girls have nothing else to do." It has seemed to me that the way to enable the boys to realize that for the time being they too *have nothing else to do*, is to connect the school interests with life interests; in other words, to so construct the school programmes that stress is laid throughout on the boy's vocational and social interests, so that these interests

shall come naturally and gradually to include the culture interests as well. And this, I think, is not difficult to do with a flexible and sufficiently comprehensive programme, as was recently suggested by Professor Felix Adler.

For example: The future artisan will be interested in the history of his craft; thence easily in the history of industry; thence, in its effect on the progress of civilization; thence in the political as well as industrial history of his race; that is to say, in the evolution of modern society with its contemporary industrial, economic, and political problems. History, economics, and government thus become interesting, because they may be shown to have an obvious relation to his dominant interest. Through history, the pupil may become interested in other peoples, with their literature and languages, and thus foreign languages may be and should be brought within the range of his interests. The obvious dependence of the thorough comprehension and pursuit of any trade on mathematics and natural science, leads to these sciences.

Again, the future merchant or manufacturer, whose business interests outweigh all other incentives to inactivity, should easily be led to take an interest in the business relations of his own city, town or state with other cities, towns and states, and thence, by any easy transition, to the commercial relations of his own country with foreign countries and to the leading interests of foreign nations. Before long the dependence of commercial and industrial activity on the form and structure, the physical features of the earth's surface and the raw materials of commerce and manufacturers, which his commercial interest finds worthy of consideration, may be used to lead the pupil to natural science, especially physiography and geology. Machinery for manufacture, and for transportation are incidentally interesting at first, because they constitute a part of the vast commercial activity to which the future merchant feels himself irresistibly drawn. Ere long, however, he finds that a comprehension of them depends on a satisfactory knowledge of mathematics and physical science. Everywhere money and credit are used to

carry on commercial enterprises. Banks and banking appear as important phases of commercial activity; so also are the relations of labor and capital, and contemporary schemes of coöperation. The government which furnishes the necessary guarantee of peace, and protection of property for the uninterrupted pursuit of all these commercial and industrial activities, is of interest because, once more, it is necessarily associated with his dominant commercial interest; and so the youth is led to study economics and civil government. Moreover the history of commerce and industry lead easily and naturally to the history of civilization. Commercial relations with other nations make clear the value of foreign modern languages, and these when once pursued, for whatever cause, may come to possess an interest of their own. A command of the mother tongues as the means of all communication for business purposes, may be utilized to extend the knowledge of its literary resources, and thus bring to bear on the future merchant its far-reaching influences on aims, character, and tastes. Similarly the future artist, with his dominant æsthetic interest, may be led to take an interest in science, in mathematics, in history, and in language, because he finds in each of these subjects important assistance toward the cultivation of what he has most at heart.

Thus, by judiciously grouping the various subjects about a youth's vocational interests, he may be led, naturally and with the least resistance, to substantial achievement in all the fields of study open to him. He may be led to general culture, because these fields of study are shown to minister primarily to his vocational interests; because they make clearer the part he desires to play in the world, and strengthen his growing ability to sustain his part well, to do his chosen work well, and to find his way with increasing certainty through the complex affairs of modern social and political life. But also before long, we may hope, in most cases, because they afford that satisfaction which every human being feels in the enlargement of his mental horizon—because they bring within his reach the disinterested pleasures of science, history, literature, and art, and enable him

to pass through the world alive to its beauties, its marvelous system, and its unsolved mysteries.

So much for the vocational and social aims of secondary education for their own sake and for the use which could be made of them in the endeavor to realize the culture aims of the secondary school. I must make the most of the remaining time at my disposal for the discussion of these culture aims themselves. None of the aims of secondary education are more precious than these. I have already said that whatever functions may be attributed to the secondary school, none has been insisted on by the community with greater emphasis and permanence than that the secondary school should disseminate the elements of general culture among the people. The public high school has been called "the people's college;" and this designation is by no means to be considered as an attempt to elevate the secondary school into a rank which it does not possess. Whatever of pretentiousness there may be occasionally in this term, in general, it expresses, merely, the cherished expectation that the high school shall disseminate the beginnings of a liberal education—the elements of general culture—among those whose time and means will not permit a higher education. And that the private secondary school exists for the avowed purpose of laying the foundations of general culture need hardly be mentioned.

But what is general culture? The almost universal meaning attached to the term until recently has been, acquaintance with the historical culture of the race, embodied in the languages, history, literature, and institutions of ancient Greece and Rome, together with some knowledge of mathematics; that is to say, general culture has been nearly synonymous with classical scholarship.¹ But a glance at modern courses of study in secondary schools and colleges, whether those courses of study are prescribed or elective, or a moment's reflection will show that the modern ideal of general culture is much broader than classical scholarship. It was natural that for a long time after the Renais-

¹ Classical scholarship meaning literary appreciation of the classics.

sance the minds of men should turn with delight solely to the ancient masterpieces of literature and art, and to the ancient civilizations. These were the only models from which the new literatures and the new civilization could receive inspiration and guidance; for modern literature and modern civilization had not then arisen. It is a truism to say that the range of life interests, the resources of civilization, have increased enormously since the Renaissance. While we feel on every hand the influence of classical traditions in our modern culture, and while, therefore, we can never dispense with classical scholarship as an element of general culture, it still remains true that a new culture and a new civilization have arisen since the Renaissance, and especially since the eighteenth century, which have their own sources of inspiration and guidance, and present their own problems for solution. *To be ignorant of these resources and problems is for the modern man to be out of relation with his time, is to miss general culture.*

The process of adjusting ourselves to this revised and enlarged conception of general culture is now going on. The old narrow ideal is tenacious of life. It is powerfully intrenched in existing courses of study, and in educational traditions; in particular, it is still sustained by collegiate preferences for classical courses in secondary schools; and lastly and chiefly, it is strong by virtue of real achievements in the education of many generations of men. But alone it can no longer suffice. *Tempora mutantur.*

Once more, then, what is general culture? It seems to me that our modern conception of general culture is primarily the comprehension and just appreciation of and the power to react on the resources and the problems of modern civilization. These resources and problems are found in the preservation and improvement of the health, physical vigor and physical well-being of the race; in modern governments; in modern industry and commerce; in modern literatures and languages—the record of the ideals and aspirations of the race in modern times; in history—the record of the achievements of the race; and in the

art treasures of all times. As I have just said, we can never exclude from the modern conception of general culture the influence of classical scholarship, but the place to attempt the realization of classical scholarship itself is, in my opinion, not the secondary school, but the college.

The importance of the modern culture in modern life is so comprehensive and so great that we should be false to our trust if we did not make adequate provision for it in the secondary school. At the same time, the pursuit of the classical languages—the only approximation to classical scholarship that can be profitably attempted in secondary schools—the pursuit of the classical languages is such a time-consuming pursuit as to very nearly preclude the serious pursuit of other subjects. This has become so obvious that the number of non-collegiate pupils who elect the so-called classical course, including both Greek and Latin, is constantly diminishing throughout the country, and the number is destined to decrease still more rapidly, as soon as the influence of collegiate preferences no longer makes Greek what a member of the Harvard faculty has called a “protected industry;” that is to say, if some colleges did not make it harder to get into college without Greek than with it. This protection cannot last long. Are we, then, in danger of losing the influence of classical antiquity in secondary education, as such, altogether? The reasons for this apprehension have already been indicated in what has gone before, but deserve explicit statement. They are the indisputable and superlative importance of modern culture, as distinct from classical culture, in modern life; and the equally indisputable fact that the attempt to achieve classical scholarship, together with the elements of modern culture, has already led to congested programmes. These congested programmes threaten to become worse.

We may as well admit that classical scholarship, *i. e.*, literary appreciation of the classics is not attainable in the secondary school. What is attainable is a fair to good elementary acquaintance with the classical languages which is a very different thing. This achievement, for many pupils, is important but, at present it

is not economically attained. Now, is it not true that what we value most in the classics for all secondary-school pupils who do not go to college, what we regard as most important, is to preserve the refining and enlightening influence of Greek and Roman thought, whether embodied in ancient art or literature, or institutions, on the thought and life of today, and of all time? It is my belief that this influence can be best realized, in secondary education, not primarily through an extended course in the classical languages, but through a serious study of history and art, together with translations of the classical literatures into the mother tongue, and other modern languages. If such study, preceded or accompanied by a *serious study* of the modern languages, be then followed by a brief course in one of the classical languages or both of them during the last year or two of the secondary school course, sufficient to enable a youth to realize the importance of these languages to a full comprehension of the history and structure of his mother tongue, and the significance of Latin and Greek in all advanced linguistic study the full educational value of the classics for secondary-school pupils would be economically and fully realized. What secondary-school pupil can appreciate Homer, Æschylus, or Demosthenes, Virgil, Horace or Cicero, in the original, as he can appreciate them in admirable translations. We have begun to recognize the magnificent possibilities of instruction in the language and literature of English speaking nations, for their own sake. Why should we not use the mother tongue also to bring the minds of our young boys and girls into actual touch with the inspiring writers of antiquity. What they now see "through a glass darkly," they would then see "face to face."

Here, then, we have in outline the scope of a modern secondary school, and, at the same time, some indication of the order of importance, objectively considered, which the several departments of work possess in the general scheme. The programme must contain certain prescribed studies, and also a considerable range of electives. Prescribed studies are needed, lest the pupil should miss vocational, social, ethical enlightenment,

on the one hand, and an appreciative understanding of nature on the other, together with the development of the corresponding powers; a considerable range of elective studies is required for the attainment of the elements of general culture, so far as that is not covered by a group of prescribed studies, and for the discovery and appropriate development of dominant interests and powers.

Besides possessing scope and flexibility, the programme should be closely articulated to the pupil's earlier course of study, should offer equal opportunities to all pupils, and should insist on adequate continuity and intensiveness in the pursuit of subjects once undertaken.

A secondary school with such a programme should also be, incidentally, a preparatory school; and I think it is safe to predict that ere long the colleges that fail to recognize the work of such a school, when well done, as suitable preparation for college courses, will be side-tracked; the main line of progress will lead past, instead of through, their doors.

The conception of the modern secondary school which I have endeavored to set forth in this paper, is that of a comprehensive institution; an institution that seeks to prepare the pupil, during the years from twelve to eighteen or nineteen, so far as possible, for life's duties, opportunities and privileges; an institution in which the various courses of study all minister to vocational, social, and culture aims; in which the teachers employ these courses of study to discover and develop the dominant interests of the pupils, and help each child to cultivate the powers which will enable him to pursue that calling for which he is best fitted by nature to his own best advantage and most acceptably to society.

The interpretation of general culture for which I have been contending as the aim in secondary education, is primarily the culture demanded by modern life.

By the close association of studies that minister chiefly to vocational and social aims, with courses of study that minister chiefly to culture aims, as such, the school should provide the

most favorable conditions for the vocational and social development of the pupil, and for the general cultivation of his mind and heart; we would thus endeavor to reach his whole nature, and to render him serviceable in the best sense at the same time to himself and to society. Through courses for the simultaneous pursuit of vocational, social, and culture aims, the secondary school may become, as it should, a guiding, inspiring, unifying force in American life. To bring to bear on the rising generation the influence of this force is the function which the modern secondary school should aim to fulfill.

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THE PREPARATORY COURSE IN ENGLISH.¹

THE aim of the teacher of English in secondary schools and the aim of the teacher of English in the universities are the same—to give the pupil a personal knowledge of some portions of English literature, and the ability to write sensibly and correctly. It is impossible to formulate any method suitable for all cases, and any method this paper may suggest must be considered merely as one possible means to the end. But to decide whether the student has attained the standard requisite for entrance to the university is necessary and possible. Hence, having laid down the rule that “no candidate will be accepted in English whose work is seriously defective in point of spelling, punctuation, grammar, or division into paragraphs,” the university constructs an examination which aims to test the pupil in both of the divisions indicated above—knowledge of literature and ability to write. For convenience and completeness the examination is divided into three parts: (1) topics for compositions, (2) questions in grammar and rhetoric, (3) questions demanding a knowledge of the elementary facts of the history of English literature and an intimate acquaintance with the books prescribed for careful study.

For the purposes of the entrance examination these subjects are not of equal importance. The pupil should have gained a knowledge of grammar in the grammar school, and the work in grammar done in the high school or academy should be in the nature of a review. Practically, the rhetoric taught in the high school must be of an elementary nature, and merely anticipatory

¹ This is the first of a series of articles prepared by the Examiners in the several departments of the University of Chicago that are concerned with entrance examinations. The articles are prepared primarily for the guidance of those who are fitting students for the University of Chicago; it is believed, however, that they will prove helpful to all secondary teachers who have to prepare pupils for college or university.

of what is to come in the university. These two subjects, as well as literary history, are, for the ordinary high-school student, not as important as a real knowledge of the books prescribed and the ability to write fluently and correctly.

These divisions will here be taken up not exactly in the order of their importance. Composition, the first division, will be reserved for the last, and the third division, that relating to the reading and the literary history, will be considered first.

In this third division itself we find a question of relative importance. The possession of enough facts concerning the development of English literature to enable the student to pursue with advantage his further studies at the university is essential. But the training gained by a critical and scholarly reading of the books prescribed for minute reading, and the general stimulating effect gained from reading (as literature) all the books prescribed is more essential. These subsections will here be taken up in the inverse order of importance.

The amount of literary history deemed necessary for the pupil entering college is fairly well indicated by Stopford Brooke's *Primer of English Literature*, or pages 271-365 of Meiklejohn's *English Language*. The candidate should know the approximate dates of the great periods of English literature, the names of the most important authors and their principal works. He should know, for instance, that Chaucer was the chief literary figure of fourteenth-century England, and that Pope and Johnson dominated the pseudo-classicism of the eighteenth century. He should know that Goldsmith wrote the *Vicar of Wakefield*, and that George Eliot wrote *Middlemarch*, *Romola*, *Adam Bede*, and so forth. He should also be given some slight hint of the spirit of these men and periods, and made to feel that the march of literary history is continuous. But the mere memorizing of lists of names and dates should be discouraged. Above all, these facts should be taught as history, and reinforced by details from the other fields of history.

If time served, the university would recommend that the candidates acquire a first-hand knowledge of at least one of the

works of each writer of prime importance. But this is obviously impossible. Hence the university selects a fairly representative list of books, some to be read carefully, but not minutely, others to be read with a higher degree of detailed examination. To extend widely the list of books read in class seems unwise, because in the ordinary high-school course it is impossible to cover a large field thoroughly. But outside reading, directed and commented on in class by the teacher should be encouraged. In all reading the aim should be to give the pupil some appreciation of the books as literature. The list for 1896 is a fair sample of the amount and nature of the class-reading desired. It includes, for careful but not minute reading, Shakspeare's *Midsummer Night's Dream*, Defoe's *History of the Plague in London*, Irving's *Tales of a Traveller*, Scott's *Woodstock*, Macaulay's *Essay on Milton*, Longfellow's *Evangeline*, and George Eliot's *Silas Marner*; for minute reading, Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice*, Milton's *L'Allegro, Il Penseroso* and *Lycidas*, and Webster's *First Bunker Hill Oration*.

A certain number of these books are modern enough to be read straightaway, with little exegesis. Irving's *Tales of a Traveller*, Webster's *First Bunker Hill Oration*, Scott's *Woodstock*, Longfellow's *Evangeline*, Macaulay's *Essay on Milton* and George Eliot's *Silas Marner* are for us so nearly contemporaneous that they may be read with only enough comment from the teacher to give the student the needed historical background, to develop to some extent an understanding of the author's literary qualities and to clear up any slight obscurities which may exist. That is, these books may, and should be read as essay, poem, or story, for the human and literary interest there is in them. The teacher should aim to let the facts speak for themselves, and to try to arouse whatever latent sense of romance or really literary judgment there may be in the students.

With the other books in the list, however, the case is different. *Comus*, *Lycidas*, *As You Like It* and the *Merchant of Venice* have, to be sure, like *Woodstock* and *Silas Marner*, a literary quality that must in some way be brought out. So far the tasks

coincide. But the works of Shakespeare and Milton are so rich in allusion, and have a vocabulary and an idiom so different from those of our day, that, to one who has never studied the language of these men as language, their meaning is often entirely unknown and even unguessable. The study of sources is, for school children, of no value. But such passages as Lorenzo's speech about the music of the spheres must be explained at length. Such constructions as the "king of smiles," the "valued file," and the proleptic use of adjectives, as in "the air nimbly and sweetly recommends itself unto our gentle senses," need not be named, but must be explained. Finally, the difference in meaning in our modern use of such words as "single," "motion," "addressed" and "state" must be pointed out. This can, perhaps, best be done by a careful and very minute reading in class of at least one play of Shakespeare and one long poem of Milton, with a considerable sum of linguistic, historical, and literary comment. So all sides of the poem or play may be treated, the student may get his information in the informal way most suitable to youth, and the linguistic comment may be forced into its natural and subordinate position. For, however much insistence is placed on the need of linguistic study, such study is but a means to the end of getting the full literary flavor of the work under consideration.

The questions put by the examiners try to test the student as to (1) his knowledge of the actual difficulties in the text, and (2) the amount of his literary appreciation. He will be asked to comment fully on the difficult constructions and the allusions in several passages chosen from the books prescribed for minute reading. He will also be asked to express his opinion of certain simple literary questions, or to show by his method of recounting a scene or an event that he has really understood and appreciated it. He may, for instance, be asked to explain the phrase, "Sweet Queen of Parley, daughter of the spheres," or, the various parts of the examination playing into each other's hands, to write a composition in which he compares George Eliot's narrative style with that of De

Foe, or recounts the expulsion of Silas Marner from Lantern Yard.

The question of the text-books to be employed is important. In general, the Clarendon Press edition of Shakespeare is to be highly commended. The notes are brief, accurate, and not overburdened with so-called æsthetic comment. When these are not to be had, Rolfe's edition is acceptable. The Clarendon Press edition of Milton, as revised by Henry Bradley, shares the praise accorded to the Clarendon Press Shakespeare. A careful, but perhaps over-edited, set of most of the books prescribed by the colleges is published by Longmans, Green & Co.

GRAMMAR AND RHETORIC

This portion of the entrance requirement will occupy one-fourth of the examination period. The subjects of grammar and rhetoric in the secondary school are deemed of importance subordinate to English composition, and should be pursued not for their own sake, but as aids to proficiency in expression. The following summary will indicate in part the nature of the question in grammar: the correct use of the auxiliary verbs—shall and will, may, can, might, etc.; the principal parts of irregular verbs, such as lie, lay, sit, set, get, eat, etc.; the proper use of relative pronouns and of verb tenses; irregular plural forms, agreements, etc. The examiner may offer for correction sentences containing *one* obvious error in grammar, and require the candidate to give sound grammatical reasons for his decisions. If the student is familiar with Latin he need not use a special text-book in English grammar; the required reading, the exercises in composition, and the class recitations will furnish in many cases sufficient opportunities for specific grammatical drill. The difference between grammatical and rhetorical blunders should be put clearly before the pupil. The teacher will find Strang's *Exercises in English* (in the *revised* form, D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1893) a useful drill-book. It may not be considered wise, however, to place this or any similar set of examples of poor English in the hands of immature students. A. S.

Hill's *Foundations of Rhetoric* (pp. 32-153) and A. S. Hill's *Principles of Rhetoric* (pp. 48-73) deal with common blunders in syntax. A useful book for more extended study is Longman's *School Grammar*, by David Salmon. It should be borne in mind that *all parts* of the examination paper serve to test the student's knowledge in this subject; he should be able to speak grammatically, to write grammatically, and to explain grammatical constructions.

Rhetorical principles may be adequately illustrated and taught in the composition class without special study of a text-book. In most cases, however, the teacher will find it advisable to supplement class instruction by the study of an elementary treatise of rhetoric and composition. Wherever the teacher employs a text-book stress should be laid upon the intimate relationship of rhetoric to expression, oral and written; rhetoric should not be studied, certainly at this stage, as an end in itself.

Therefore such subjects (frequently treated at length in rhetorics designed for secondary schools) as kinds of composition, figures of speech, prosody, oratory, and an extended discussion of the qualities of style are deemed unsuitable for the immature student. Of primary importance on the other hand are questions relating to diction, viz., the right and the wrong use of words commonly misapplied, synonyms, slang, barbarisms, provincialisms, etc.; sentences, viz., punctuation, the loose and the periodic form, the unity, coherence, and length of sentence; paragraphs, viz., the nature, object, and form, and the principles of unity and coherence; compositions, viz., methods of building and of connecting the parts. All these rhetorical matters may be discussed with profit when the student is first consciously engaging in the problems of composition. Such text-books as A. S. Hill's *Foundations of Rhetoric* (with Buehler's *Exercises*), Genung's *Outlines of Rhetoric*, G. R. Carpenter's *Exercises in Rhetoric and Composition* (elementary course), and Scott and Denney's *Composition-Rhetoric* are suggested as suitable treatises. The university examiners disapprove of the premature

use of more advanced works, such as Genung's *Practical Rhetoric* or A. S. Hill's *Principles*, for experience has shown that when these books have been used while the candidates have but a confused idea of much they have passed over, they are unwilling to attempt further careful rhetorical study. In general it may be said that, whatever is concerned with the ornate, the purely æsthetic or the theoretic should be lightly touched upon. From the examiner's point of view, no glibness in the theory of rhetoric will offset ignorance in the practical application as shown in composition.

COMPOSITION

Every part of the examination book in English furnishes a test of the candidate's power to write simple, correct, and fluent English. Moreover, books in other subjects wherever practicable, as in history, may be examined for additional evidence. The specific exercise in composition is of the following nature: a number of topics, suggested by the books for general reading, are offered, from which the candidate will select one or more. The topics require merely the ability to summarize poem, play, novel, or essay; to describe a scene, or to write a simple, natural criticism or comparison of two or more works. The student should have something to say on the topic chosen, and, as far as possible, the thought should be his own. He should express that thought in a clearly constructed, short composition consisting of suitable, definite paragraph units. The aim of this exercise is twofold: to test the student's correctness in diction and sentence structure, and to test his powers of formulating his thought coherently.

In judging these compositions the examiner takes into account the following matters: first, under the general head of *illiteracy*, blunders in spelling words commonly used, especially names of authors. No candidate will be admitted who misspells, roughly speaking, over 2 per cent. of his vocabulary. Blunders in the use of capital letters and in simple punctuation, *e. g.*, the use of the comma for the period, the semicolon for the comma,

the total absence or misplacement of commas, and the inability to apply the semicolon in simple compound sentences. Blunders in grammar, especially misuse of shall and will, wrong use of neither or nor, superlative instead of comparative form of adjectives, lack of agreement between subject and predicate, the loose use of participles. Blunders in the use of common words, such as mutual, act, action, balance, remainder, party, person, individual, accept, except, affect, effect, allude, claim, loan, locate, etc. Blunders in sentences, such as the following examples (taken from admission papers 1893-1896, University of Chicago) will illustrate:

EXAMPLES OF FAULTY SENTENCES

1. Of course not all young men fall into such a state, nor even the majority, but there are many who do, and for them success is doubtful. [Loose and lacking in unity.]

2. From whose number the president appointed a board. [Incomplete.]

3. I could hear a rustling, I knew the birds were preparing to rest. [Two sentences punctuated as one.]

4. She went her way in silence, while the blinding snow was unheeded, and no one took notice of her. [Incoherent structure.]

5. The gas having been turned down, he stumbled about in the darkness. [The clumsy "absolute construction".]

6. Hardly are we accustomed to the methods of one teacher before we are turned over to another and worst of all one teacher is expected to know how to teach half-a-dozen different subjects. [Lack of unity.]

The common blunder of paragraphing each statement, or of making no paragraph units is the final point under this head.

The second general head may be termed *faults of crudeness and carelessness*: (1) an insufficient vocabulary, and (2) insufficient acquaintance with the books prescribed. The candidate should have at his command a vocabulary wide enough to express his thoughts without frequent repetition of words already used in

the paragraph, and to enable him to choose from a number of words the one best suited for his purpose. Candidates frequently present themselves for admission who have read only a few of the books on the lists for the year, or who have read the works so carelessly that about any one topic they have but a scanty stock of ideas. The only remedies for this deficiency are greater care in reading and reviewing the texts, the requirement by the teacher of frequent summaries, and discussions in class of the matter of fact and of literary appreciation suggested by the reading.

Some positive considerations may be stated under a third head. What kind of information about the masterpieces read in preparation for the examination should the candidate possess? How should he treat the topics on which he is to write his short composition? In the first place the examiner finds the tendency to prepare students with one stock essay on each book studied deplorable. Frequent exercises in composition on each novel, essay, or poem, are essential, but no one set of ideas should be given the candidate to be reproduced on any possible clue in the examination paper. Furthermore the student should be sufficiently familiar with the contents of all the books to discuss readily and intelligently a character, a scene, or an argument taken from any one, and to compare one style or subject with another. Granted that the candidate has made himself familiar with the subject-matter, he should be able next to build his essay, constructing it in his mind or on paper before he attempts to write it out in full. He should have the power to review his work, once written, and at least to free it from all errors. The final test of a candidate's ability to write adequately is this power to construct a well-proportioned essay, and in revision to see his subject as a whole.

ILLITERATE COMPOSITION

THE PAYMENT OF THE BOND

1. Antonio was a merchant of Venice, who had many ships, plying between Venice, and other points, which not having

arrived, as soon as he expected, was in need of some money. He meets his friend Bassanio, who tells him of a rich jew, named Shylock, from whom he could borrow some money, until his ships arrived.

2. They go to Shylock who lends Antonio the money, on condition, that, if he fails to pay back the money within three

FAULTY SENTENCES

PORTIA'S AND BASSANIO'S TROUBLES

Portia was the orphan daughter of a wealthy man, who at his death left three cases one of Gold, one of Silver and one of Lead and whatever suitor there was for her hand must choose his answer from one of the three cases as her picture was in the lucky one, but whoever chose and lost could never in future sue for a maiden's hand in marriage. Suitors came from the whole civilized world and some on learning the conditions went away without choosing. But for all that *so* did Portia was quite thankful.

(2) Finally heralds came announcing the approach of one, "Bassanio." His appearance was quite pleasing to Portia, more so than to any of her former suitors. She begged him to delay his choice for a few days for she feared he would lose under the conditions of her Father's will and she was loathe to part with his company so soon.

(3) Bassanio was anxious to make the choice immediately, so Portia sang to him while he read the inscriptions on the cases. The song indicated to him on which case her likeness could be found. Following this Bassanio asked for the key to the Leaden case. He opened it and found the picture of Portia.

(4) News now came to Bassanio of the loss of all his friends ships that were given in

PARAGRAPHS. ILLITERACY. IMMATURITY

A. 4. The story of Portia and Bassanio is one of love, bringing in the will of Portia's father.

Portia was a rich and beautiful woman living in Belmont,

whom many princes and suitors came to win, but all were not successful, except Bassanio.

Bassanio, after having been assisted by his friend Antonio, went to Belmont to try his chance with the caskets, which Portia's father had left, for the suitors of Portia to choose from to win her.

Bassanio after several little speeches upon examining the golden silver and leaden caskets, chose the leaden, in which was Portia's picture by which he knew he was successful.

So Bassanio and Portia were betrothed. The bond of Antonio and Shylock is another story to be told.

Antonio, a rich merchant of Venice, had several ships at sea, and with them all his available property was contained; so when asked for money by Bassanio he had to borrow it from Shylock the Jew. But Shylock would not let him have the money unless Antonio would give a bond, stating that he would allow Shylock to take a pound of flesh from whatever part of the body of Antonio, Shylock wished.

The bond was sealed and when the time for the payment of the money came, and when Antonio's ships had not yet returned, Shylock brought Antonio into court and was about to take his bond when Portia in guise of a judge entered.

Portia plead with him on the side of mercy, and since that was of no avail, commanded him to take his bond but in taking it he was not to spill one drop of blood or take more or less flesh than that bond stated.

HIGH SCHOOL SELF GOVERNMENT

MR. THURBER's article in the January number of the SCHOOL REVIEW and his invitation for an expression of opinion on high school self government lead me to submit for suggestion and criticism the plan that has obtained in the Pratt Institute High School, Brooklyn, for a year past. It differs materially from the plan of the Warren High School, described in the January number. In Warren the constitution requires certain students to take note of those of their fellows who break the rules laid down in the constitution. As the rules and regulations of the board of directors of the school are expressly made a part of that instrument it appears that the students on signing the constitution pledge themselves, whenever they shall be elected senators, to report any fellow student seen breaking any rules three times in two weeks. It obligates upon the students the detection of wrong-doing and the punishment of the offender.

When self-government was discussed at the Pratt High School, the students showed a willingness to coöperate with the management of the school, but, in their discussions, expressly declared that they did not want to be put in the position of spying upon one another or of punishing students. As one of the boys said: "The teachers are hired to govern the school and it seems to me to be their place to make complaints when we don't do as we should. If the teachers are willing to advise with us about what is the fair thing to do, I think we recognize the compliment, but it will never work to make the students detectives and police." I think that this sentiment is so universal and so strong among students that any plan of self-government that goes contrary to it will be inconsistent with the present conditions of school management. A school and the public have so long looked upon the principal of the school as its executive officer and will so persistently hold him responsible for what

punishment is inflicted on a student, that I believe the plan of delegating any of the executive powers of that officer to those so irresponsible as students must be would be unwise. At any rate, the Pratt Institute students expressly declined to assume such powers, but showed, as did the Warren students, a willingness to share in the law-making and judicial functions of the principal.

The Pratt plan was suggested when Mr. C. M. Pratt, president of the board of trustees of Pratt Institute, was a member of the committee of adjustment of the system of student government in Amherst College. He made general suggestions and advised that the members of the school work out the particulars. When the senior class of the high school were invited to suggest plans for coöperation they had just finished an extended study of the Constitution of the United States. Their own constitution shows the effect of such study. It recognizes three branches of government: the legislative, composed of a senate (teachers) and an assembly (seniors); the executive (the principal); and the judicial (an equal number of teachers and students). As the seniors made the constitution they felt that a certain amount of dignity, experience, and brains, was requisite in a legislator, and so excluded the underclassmen from that office. To the school court, however, two underclassmen are eligible. A peculiar feature of the constitution is that it acknowledges its limitations and professes to be a delation of only the powers mentioned in it, the rest remaining where they usually are, with the principal. It seems unnecessary to say that this provision was inserted when the instrument came to the senate of teachers. About a year was consumed in sending the constitution back and forth between the teachers and the students. Several joint sessions were necessary, and several compromises had to be made. One feature of the constitution which appeals to me is its failure to discriminate between students and teachers. It is for members of the school whether instructors or pupils. The principal is in honor bound to enforce its laws in the case of both.

When the constitution was finished, the whole school signed

it. Since then, when any new student or teacher is added to membership, he signs the following:

DECLARATION OF INTENTION

[The provisions governing the conduct of members of the school are comprised in the school constitution, established by students and instructors, February 1896, and subject to amendment only by joint action of students and instructors. Before an applicant can become a member of the school he is required to declare his intention to support the constitution. This may be done by signing the following declaration.]

Believing in the principles of self-government as necessary to the most intelligent and exalted citizenship, I hereby declare that if I am admitted as a member of the Pratt Institute High School, I will support the constitution of that school to the best of my ability.

[A copy of the school constitution may be consulted at any time in the high school office.]

The plan has worked beautifully. It has a beneficent effect upon both teachers and students. Every student knows that he is free to appeal to the school court whenever he regards the requirement of a teacher or of the principal as unjust. Every teacher and the principal feels that any whimsical or unduly severe exaction is subject to a review by three instructors and three students; and as a result there has not been one appeal since the plan was instituted. The constitution is thus like a good stomach, it is there but scarcely anyone realizes it. One feels that he is in a community where he is governed the best because governed the least. I submit the constitution as printed and distributed to the school.

CONSTITUTION OF THE PRATT INSTITUTE HIGH SCHOOL

(Adopted February 15, 1896)

PREAMBLE

We, the members of the Pratt Institute High School, in order to establish a common understanding, promote justice and good order, forward the general welfare, raise the standard of truth and honor among the members of the Pratt Institute High School, and keep in practice the principles of good citizenship, hereby establish and subscribe to the following constitution:

ARTICLE I

SECTION 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in the high school senate and in the high school assembly.

SEC. 2. The high school senate shall consist of the officers and instructors of the high school.

SEC. 3. The high school assembly shall consist of the enrolled members of the senior class.

SEC. 4. The two bodies collectively shall be known as the high school congress.

ARTICLE II

SECTION 1. There shall be a high school court, composed of four members from the high school senate, two from the high school assembly, one from the junior class, and one from the sophomore class.

SEC. 2. The delegates to the high school court shall be elected by their respective bodies at the beginning of the term, and shall serve one term or until their successors are elected.

SEC. 3. Every member of the high school senate or high school assembly, so elected, shall serve in the high school court, unless for reasons given the body that elected him, it shall excuse him and elect a successor.

Any member of the high school court may delegate his powers for any session of the court upon presentation to the court of a written order countersigned by the high school principal.

In case of absence of any member from the high school court at any sitting, the vacancy shall be filled by the remaining members of the court, who may appoint to such vacancy a substitute from the same body that the vacant member represents.

SEC. 4. The high school court shall meet on call of the high school principal, but he is bound to call the court in case of appeal from the decision made by any member of the high school.

SEC. 5. The high school court shall act upon all cases of discipline brought before it by the high school principal or by an appeal.

SEC. 6. The voting of the high school court shall be by secret ballot.

SEC. 7. The school court shall have the power to summon any accused person before it, and an accused person shall have the privilege of appearing once before the court to defend himself from charges. He may have the right to select a counsel to act for him and with him.

ARTICLE III

SECTION 1. The constitution recognizes the functions of the principal of the high school, as established by the trustees of the Pratt Institute. The provisions of this constitution are recognized as the exercise of powers delegated to the senate and high school assembly and high school court by the principal of the high school in good faith, and not to be abrogated except by both senate and assembly, or by the action of the trustees of Pratt Institute.

SEC. 2. The principal of the high school shall execute penalties for mis-

demeanors herein to be stipulated, and those which have been adjudged by the high school court.

SEC. 3. All powers not herein expressly delegated shall remain in the hands of the principal of the high school.

ARTICLE IV

Offenses punishable shall be as follows:

1. Defacing desks, furniture, or other parts of the equipment of the institute.

2. Smoking in the institute building, play grounds, athletic field, or anywhere in the square bounded by the outside lines of DeKalb, Steuben, Willoughby, and Hall streets.

Repeated failure to be on time at the beginning of school, at class, in completion of work, or in returning of reports. More than six unexcused tardinesses or three absences in any term shall result in warning the member that another unexcused tardiness or absence will result in suspension.

4. Conduct unbecoming members of Pratt Institute High School.

5. Repeated neglect of work.

6. Meddling with the property of the other members of the institute.

ARTICLE V

All members of the high school shall have the right of appeal to the high school court in all matters pertaining to school discipline.

ARTICLE VI

Amendment

This constitution may be established and at any time amended by a majority vote of the high school senate and a majority vote of the high school assembly at any meeting, provided a notice of proposed amendment shall have been posted on the high school bulletin one week previous, and this amendment is approved by the principal of the high school. Amendments may prevail over the principal's veto on receiving a three-quarter vote of the high school senate and high school assembly.

SEC. 2. In matters of discipline not herein provided for, the high school senate and high school assembly shall have the power to legislate, subject to the approval of the principal of the high school, in the same manner as provided for in case of amendments to this constitution.

W. A. McANDREW

PRATT INSTITUTE,
Brooklyn, N. Y.

CHILD STUDY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

[By permission of Principal Atkinson we publish the following forms, prepared for use in connection with the work of the Springfield High School, in the confident belief that they will be interesting and directly helpful to many teachers in other schools. The line of work here opened up is one of great suggestiveness and large possibilities. Later in the year we hope to publish some of the results of the experiment undertaken at Springfield.]

THE HIGH SCHOOL.

Springfield, Mass.,, 189 .

DEAR M. :

The pupils of the enclosed list, all of whom were recommended by you, have been admitted to the high school. The teachers of the high school, being especially interested in the pupils of the entering class, and desiring also to enter into closer relations with the teachers who have already had these pupils, will be glad to receive in regard to them any information which you may be able and willing to give. Such information is desired as will assist their teachers and principal in estimating justly what may be expected of them in the way of deportment, scholarship, and attendance, with a view to encouraging them and reducing the chance of failure or of misapplication of energy.

Yours, truly,

FRED W. ATKINSON

MEMORANDUM OF PRINCIPAL OF GRAMMAR SCHOOL

Name of pupil. School.
School attendance
.
General health.
.
Temperament
.
Character
.

General scholarship

What course ought to have chosen?

Ought to be allowed to take up extra work first year?

Greatest strength and interest

Greatest weakness

Outside interests (what steady likes are shown)

Home conditions (outside influence in general)

In case of difficulty in learning or fault in behavior what method of instruction or discipline have you found most helpful?

A NOTE OF EXPLANATION

Under "School attendance," state whether pupil has always attended Springfield schools, if not, when he entered, also if one or more grades have been omitted, and what grades. Note also regularity of attendance.

Under "General health," note such points as "is growing rapidly," or "has headaches," or "is robust," "is nervous," "is delicate," etc. Note also any physical defects in hearing or sight.

Under "Temperament," indicate marked characteristics, such as "cheerful," "morbid," "quick," "slow," "bright," "conceited," "happy-go-lucky," "indifferent," "winning," "sunny," "ambitious," "diffident," "methodical," etc., and, under "Character," "reliable," "straightforward," "determined," "unstable," "sly," "vain," "conscientious," "purposeful," etc. It is not necessary to discriminate between these two items—all may be written as if under the heading, "Personal qualities."

Under "Greatest strength," it may be expected that the answers will be somewhat like the following: "History and grammar," or "memory," or "mathematics," or "expression," either written or oral, or both, etc. And under "Greatest weakness," "no ability to think," or "to memorize," or "to express himself."

"Outside interests." Is house or any other kind of work other than school work required of this pupil at home, etc.? Does he make collections? Read history? Take music lessons, etc.? Do church, social, or other interests take a large part of pupil's time outside of school? Dislikes as well as likes may be noted.

"Home conditions." Is this pupil held down to study? Are conditions at home particularly favorable or unfavorable for intellectual and moral development? etc. Is he the only child? The oldest child? Has he many brothers and sisters?

THE HIGH SCHOOL,
Springfield, Mass., 1897.

DEAR :

The teachers of the high school, seeking to do all they can for their pupils, both in advancing them in their studies, and in looking after their health, and desiring also to enter into closer relations with the parents, will be glad to receive answers to the questions on the enclosed blank concerning your

In answering these questions, parents are requested not to confer at all with the pupils themselves. This information gathered from you is solely for the use of the principal and teachers, and will in no case reach the knowledge of fellow-pupils or of persons not connected with the school.

It would seem as if we were putting you to considerable trouble in asking you all these questions. It would be requiring too much were the information desired not concerning the good of your and did not we believe that from this information, which you alone can give, we should be better able to watch over and further intelligently and sympathetically your education and physical health.

If possible, return these blanks within a week, whether they are filled out or not.

Very truly yours,

FRED W. ATKINSON.

P.S.—In case health alters perceptibly in the next few months, headaches or sleeplessness come, please let me know, even if you have returned this blank.

MEMORANDUM OF PARENT

Name of pupil

1. What has been general health during the last two years?

2. Does have any trouble with eyesight?

3. Does sleep well? How many hours?

Does take time enough to eat a good breakfast before going to school?

4. Roughly, how much time does spend in recreation and exercise?

In what way?

- Do you think is out in the air enough?
5. Do you think we teachers require too much of? Do you think might do more studying just as well as not?
6. Roughly, how much time does spend at home studying? Does need to be urged to study or not?
7. Does take books from the library for self? Roughly, how much time does spend in reading books (not connected with school work)? What is the character of this reading? Does read the magazines? Newspapers.
8. What steady likes and dislikes has in school and out? What study, if any, does complain of as hardest?
9. State any other things (concerning temperament, character, etc.) which we ought to know to be of greatest help and encouragement to.

NAME CLASS DATE

1. What books have you read since?
2. Which of these books do you especially like, and why?
3. What character in these books do you especially like, and why?
4. What kind of literature do you prefer—fiction, history, biography, books of travel, essays, poetry, etc.?
5. Who is your favorite author?
6. What newspapers (daily or weekly) do you habitually read?
7. What magazines do you read, and which do like the best?
8. Do you draw books from the City Library—if so, about how many each month?

HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS' MEMORANDUM

Name Date of beginning of this study
Date and place of birth

Height
Weight
Sight
Hearing
Health
.....
Temperament
.....
Character
.....
.....
General scholarship (chief mental characteristics. Character of this pupil's
mental development)
.....
Greatest strength (interest).....
.....
Greatest weakness (difficulty)
.....
Application (studious? Stimulus needed, etc.).....
.....
Attention
.....
Ability to express, A. Orally
.....
Ability to express, B. In writing
.....
Ability to think (inference and reasoning).....
.....
Ability to memorize
.....
Imagination.....
.....
Attendance, A. Regularity
.....
Attendance, B. Punctuality.....
.....

Attendance, C. Dismissals	
Interests, A. In school.....	
Interests, B. Out of school.....	
Controlling motives (why does this pupil attend school? etc).....	
General deportment (most successful treatment, etc).....	
Additional data.....	

F. W. ATKINSON

OUTLOOK NOTES

IN the *Bookman* for August, someone, presumably the accomplished and versatile editor, pitches into the summer school in good old fashioned style. "One of the most insidious inventions of the devil" is his conclusion of

SUMMER SCHOOLS

the whole matter so far as summer schools are concerned. "To go from his class room to a place where the same old grind in another form is still going on, to make one of a crowd of jaded, nervous, sensitive beings who are stewing in their own juice, and gabbling over and over the formulas of the educationist, so far from being a stimulus and an inspiration, is actually the undoing of a teacher, and sends him back to his work with a still further exhaustion of energy and enthusiasm and sympathy." This because "of all the professions, teaching is the most exhausting, and takes the most out of one's brain and nerve and general vitality." This indictment ought to have appeared in the May number when it might have done some good, or evil, in scaring teachers out of summer study. In August the matter is settled one way or the other, and by next year the counsels of the *Bookman* will, sad to think, be forgotten. That teaching is an exhausting profession teachers will not care to deny. Neither do most manly and womanly teachers care to prate about it all the while. Any strenuous labor is exhausting; more exhausting is labor done in a discontented spirit; most exhausting of all is labor beyond the capacity of the laborer, or to which the laborer has not fully adjusted himself, morally and mentally. Now we take it that a good many teachers are going to be happier, more comfortable, and less worried the coming year and for many years to come because of knowledge gained in the summer school this summer, knowledge they greatly needed in their teaching, and for the lack of which they have been worried and had nerves thrust upon them in the past. "I

should be contented to teach all my life and die happy," said a teacher not so long ago, "if I could only meet Professor — once a year and hear him talk about the teacher's calling." Does not the inspiration gained in the summer school, the moral and mental readjustment to professional conditions more than make up for a partial loss of holiday? Summer work is seldom prolonged beyond half the long vacation, leaving still six or seven weeks for physical recreation. Not every teacher ought to study in the summer, and doubtless no teacher ought to study every summer. But the fact that some teachers do study every summer, and that any teacher may study any summer, gives to teaching one of its greatest advantages and chiefest charms.

Is there any reason why the words "commercial" and "business" should be in such bad odor in educational circles? Is it,

**COMMERCIAL
COURSES**

perhaps, in Christian recognition of the fact that the word "education" is frequently in bad odor in business circles? The whole situation is a relic of barbarism, a curious survival of mediævalism in the most modern of modern times. Education then was solely for the scholars, clergymen mainly and a few professional men, between whom and the tradesmen there was a large gulf located. But now it is our proud boast that education is universal. So far have educators gone in disregarding the claims of the practical that a special class of institutions has developed, outside entirely of the recognized educational system, for training youth for commercial life, the so-called "business colleges," mainly institutions not colleges where business is not taught. Commercial courses are just creeping into our high schools, but these courses are poor, weak, emasculated things. A little shorthand or bookkeeping are sufficient to make a "course." What is needed is a good strong course, fully equal in thoroughness and content to any other course, taught by strong teachers, too; a course which shall include the history of commerce and industries, commercial geography, practical economics, transportation, finance and

banking, commercial law, along with mathematics, history, English, and modern foreign languages. Boys now too often feel that it is not worth their while to go through the high school. Such studies as those mentioned would seem to them thoroughly worth while, and would help greatly to remove the inequality in the sexes in every high school graduating a class, an inequality that would be startling if we were not so thoroughly used to it.

C. H. THURBER

COMMUNICATIONS.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE DIAGRAM

THE gist of Professor Barbour's contribution (in the April number of the *SCHOOL REVIEW*) to the discussion of the psychology of the diagram seems to be the time-honored objection of the pedagogue to every innovation in education—"it cannot be adjusted to fit our methods." Doubtless it is true that the psychological genesis of the sentence will not avail to teach the subject of grammar as that subject is today commonly understood—that is, accounting it to be the science of crystallized or fossilized thought-structure, the anatomy, not the physiology, of sentential expression. If that is the grammar we want to teach now, as we have done in the past, let be. The straight-line Reed and Kellogg diagram will adequately serve us.

But those who still insist upon this diagram, and thus upon the outworn conception of grammar which it implies, seem not to realize that they are fighting the flood of irresistible progress in education. The all but universal disfavor into which the subject of grammar has fallen, not alone in the higher circles of pedagogical thought, but among the practical and progressive teachers of our primary and secondary schools, bears witness to the fact that this subject is going the way of botany and zoölogy, of psychology and logic, whose conversion from formal to biological sciences is a matter of comparatively recent history. The advocates of the straight-line diagram are playing today the rôle of objectors fifty years ago to the study of plant physiology. "How does the embryology, the physiological development, of the plant structure, help us to classify a buttercup in the genus *ranunculaceæ*?" they inquired scornfully. But we have found that there are things more vital in the science of botany than the Linnæan classification. It is now somewhat late in the day for protest against the dominant tendency in education to view all structures from the standpoint of growth, of evolution. This tendency has been unsuccessfully resisted in science and in philosophy. Can we hope that even the stern encasements of grammar will be able to prevail against it?

It is true that the new psychology of the sentence has not yet been digested into a detailed method of teaching grammar. But patience. No genuine "system" of teaching any subject springs full-grown into birth, but forms itself slowly out of a new point of view, such as in grammar the later theory of sentence-structure affords. And certainly the suggestion that the organic constitution of the sentence be represented by the growing diagram, such as that of the tree, the amoeba, or the solar system, rather than by the static diagram of crossing straight lines, is nothing unless it be a practical suggestion looking toward the pedagogy of the new grammar. The whole point of the paper read at the English conference in Ann Arbor, and later published in the *Educational Review*, was the recommendation that a diagram be used in teaching grammar, which represents truly the biological development of the sentence-thought. This the tree diagram does. This the straight-line diagram does not. And, since it is complained that certain "advantages" accruing from the use of the straight-line diagram have been ignored, let it be said that both these advantages (those of representing sentence-structure to the eye of the pupil and of serving as a stenographic device for the teacher) are secured equally well by the use of the biological diagram; and, furthermore, if this were not so, no conceivable advantages could neutralize the tremendous disadvantage of untruthfulness. If the straight-line diagram is not true to the structure of the sentence, its supporters have no arguments for it strong enough to overbear that fact. The whole matter lies here. There is only one question to settle, and that is the question, "Does the straight-line diagram truthfully represent the actual structure of the sentence?" And for the answer to this question we have no appeal but to modern psychology, which at once and emphatically negatives Professor Barbour's statement that "the straight-line diagram does in a general way fairly represent the grammatical structure of the English sentence." The straight-line diagram unqualifiedly *misrepresents* that structure, as it is understood by the accredited psychology of the present day; and in the face of this fact all minor contentions fade into the background.

Allow me to correct a misapprehension on the part of Professor Barbour. The genesis of the sentence is not of historical interest alone, or even chiefly, since such genesis takes place in the mind of every child who utters a sentence. It is the development in the speaker's mind of the inchoate thought into clearly differentiate utter-

ance that concerns us. I should not care to affirm that the interjection was historically the earliest form of speech, though from psychological considerations I might be inclined to that view. That puzzle has, I believe, been relinquished by philologists, and I am not so rash as to attempt its solution offhand. What I do assert is only that the interjection represents adequately the first vague stage of a thought in the mind of the person who afterwards utters from it a somewhat primitive sentence. From interjection to developed sentence is the progress of a single thought in a single human brain. Beyond that we need not for our purposes go.

Professor Barbour rightly says: "If we teach grammar pedagogically we shall make the sentence our point of departure." I would not only indorse this statement, but go a step further still, and say that the sentence must be our point of departure and also of return. It is at once the starting point and goal. It is, rightly understood, the whole subject of grammar. And it is for this reason that I must again urge the fundamental necessity of regarding the sentence from the psychological point of view, not as the mathematical formula, "subject + predicate = sentence," but as a living and growing organism, which has developed from a simple to a complex unity. Let us have done, as speedily as may be, with the mechanical *e pluribus unum* conception of the sentence, and read the development of expression as we have come to read that of life and of thought, in terms of biological growth.

GERTRUDE BUCK

INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

BOOK REVIEWS

Preparatory Latin Composition. By F. P. MOULTON. Ginn & Co., 1896. Pp. xiii + 142.

THE statement is made in the preface that "this book has been prepared in accordance with the most advanced methods of teaching Latin composition," and this assertion seems to be supported by the facts, though it must be admitted that the term "most advanced methods" might be variously interpreted by different individuals. About the author's further claim that the book is a product of his own experience, there can be no question; that fact is sufficiently established by the vigor and freshness that are everywhere apparent.

The purpose of the book is to provide exercises for translation to accompany the daily work of reading in four books of Cæsar and the six orations of Cicero that are usually read. These exercises involve the works, idioms, and constructions found in the passage of Latin upon which the exercise is based, but the writer announces that similarity, not identity, is aimed at. Two sets of exercises are given for the first book of Cæsar, the second set more difficult than the first. This arrangement is for the accommodation of those who begin reading at the second book. Some exercises have been added for translation of English into Latin at sight.

Probably all teachers will agree with Mr. Moulton in the statement that "the great aim of Latin composition is so to fix in the mind of the pupil the idioms, constructions and style of the Latin that he can translate more rapidly, correctly and intelligently." Most of us will also indorse his claim that "the exercises to be written should contain the idioms, constructions, and style of the Latin which the pupil is reading at the time." But from this point there is likely to be divergence of opinion, for many instructors think that they can do better for their students by giving them exercises adapted to their varying needs than by putting a text-book into their hands. For those, however, who feel the need of such a book Mr. Moulton has performed a real service.

Especially commendable features of this book are an effort to

furnish a continuous narrative and to instruct the pupil how to join sentences properly by means of conjunctions and pronouns, and also an endeavor to familiarize the student with his grammar by constantly referring him to it.

Whether the sentences for translation show sufficient variation from the original and whether they are properly graded in point of difficulty are questions that must be determined by the individual teacher.

FRANK A. GALLUP

COLGATE ACADEMY

A Short History of Rome to the Death of Augustus. By J. WELLS.
Methuen & Co., London, 1896. Pp. xii + 353. 3s. 6d.

THERE is a real need of a text-book in Roman history which shall neither omit too many subjects nor treat too briefly those presented, and which shall thus be to Roman history what both Oman's and Myers' are to Greek. To those who have felt this need the size of Wells' book will commend it, and it has also more worthy claims to the consideration of teachers in secondary schools. The author has brought to the preparation of the work a considerable acquaintance with the original sources, and, though he acknowledges his general indebtedness to Mommsen and Ihne, he does not hesitate to differ from these high authorities occasionally. His emphasis upon those portions of his subject which treat of war and government has been so great that the religious and literary elements do not by any means receive due attention. That in his chapters upon Augustus no mention should be made of the glories of the literature of this period seems indefensible. Often, also, too much information on the part of the student is taken for granted by the author, so that such terms as auspices, Sibylline books, vestal virgins do not receive adequate explanation, though they are very often used. But four maps are given, and of these two are too small, too crowded, and otherwise inadequate, nor are there any other illustrations. The style is clear and interesting, and the author has a helpful fashion of presenting a summary of the causes of important events. Historical parallels are frequently made, but that the usefulness of these is based upon the association of the unknown with the known seems sometimes to have been overlooked, as when students of the fourth and fifth forms of the English public schools, for whom the book is designed, are referred to the laws of

Manu in India to observe the irrational development which the publication of the Roman law in the twelve tables prevented it from acquiring. Likewise it may be doubted whether his comparison of the government of Carthage to that of Venice in the later days of that republic has real illustrative value to the students.

His only illustrations drawn from American institutions are certainly not likely to please the American youth, for he declares that the Romans developed a system of electoral corruption which can only be paralleled in the elections of America, and that Clodius organized an army of disorder and corruption which might move the envy of a modern American "ward politician" or "political boss."

The book is furnished with neither marginal dates nor bibliographies, but a useful appendix is given, in which are presented a list of the chief dates and separate chronologies of the "Struggle between the Orders," of "Rome's Power in Italy," of the "Growth of the Provincial System," of the "Extension of Roman Privileges," and of the "Decay of Senatorial Authority." In these lists the date 204 B. C. is given for the close of the second Punic war, but otherwise accuracy prevails.

For those able and willing to supplement from other sources this narrative of Rome's most characteristic activities, war and government, with an account of the religious beliefs and customs, the literature and other interests of this people, Wells' book will be found useful.

WAYLAND J. CHASE

MORGAN PARK ACADEMY

Chaucer's Canterbury Tales. Selections. By HIRAM CORSON, LL.D.,
Professor of English Literature in the Cornell University.
\$.90. The Macmillan Co.

THE constant improvement in the newer text-books for students along lines indicated by the best pedagogical thought has been greatest in books on English, more particularly literature—perhaps because there was greatest need for advance here. Literature is no longer treated as a mere vehicle for grammar. Too many teachers of English in the past, following closely the lead of their text-books, have given their students a knowledge of Shakespeare and of Milton of the same nature as that gained from the exercises in a district school parsing book; all the inspiration, all the cultivation of a love for beauty in its

finest sense, all the refined and pure enjoyment coming from a proper study of great masterpieces has been repressed by undue attention to inflections and etymologies. This method of teaching literature is easy; the instructor needs but a knowledge of a few facts.

Professor Corson is not one of these teachers. His scholarship is of the ripest; but he is more than scholarly, he is delicately sensible to literary beauty and has the power to kindle enthusiastic appreciation of the same in others. In this he is a teacher of the truest kind, and any book coming from him can be regarded as of great worth. His *Aims of Literary Study* is a noble effort to enforce the idea of the value of the study of literature as *literature*; and his *Introduction to Browning* is a most inspiring incentive to a beginner in Browning. He has again laid teachers of literature under obligations to him in his recent edition of selections from *Canterbury Tales*, prepared as "an introduction to the study of Chaucer as a poet rather than as a writer of fourteenth century English."

The short biography of the poet which Professor Corson has given is not a careless compilation of traditional matter, nor does it contain rash conclusions based on flimsy evidence, but is a sensible work showing painstaking investigation and careful judgment. For instance, instead of insisting, because wishing to believe, that Chaucer visited Petrarch at Padua, as is frequently stated, Professor Corson says, "It would be a pleasant fact, if it could be established as a fact, that these two poets met; but conclusive testimony thereto is wanting."

There are, too, the necessary explanations of the grammar, but they are short and clear. Pronunciation is dealt with most sensibly. While admitting that Chaucer's exact pronunciation may never be known, the professor insists that "anyone who . . . has attained a fluent . . . reading of Chaucer's verse, according to an approximate pronunciation of the time . . . certainly gets a flavor therefrom not afforded by modern English pronunciation." The table of sounds, however, contains an unusual statement that *er* must have been frequently sounded as *er* in *sergeant*.

The notes are really interesting; partly because they are not solutions to philological problems and ponderous with quotations from a score of languages, and partly because they are comments such as beginners in literature find valuable. One of the novel statements is that French of Stratford-at-Bow was good, perhaps superior to Parisian.

There are chapters on the features of Chaucer's poetry and on the versification.

The glossary presents one minor but extremely useful aid to beginners; every different grammatical form is inserted under a separate entry.

The selections contain a wider range than any edition I know. The prologue and five tales, including the Knights, are given practically complete, and there are portions of eleven other prologues and tales, all chosen "to represent Chaucer at his best, both as a story-teller and as a poet."

Certainly this is the most satisfactory text-book I have seen to inspire a beginner with a love of the "morning star of song."

GEORGE M. MARSHALL

UNIVERSITY OF UTAH

A First Book in Writing English. By EDWIN HERBERT LEWIS.
New York and Chicago: The Macmillan Company.

THIS book gives the impression of being carefully finished and fitted for its purpose. Very simple and practical in arrangement and design, it is point by point obviously the outcome of a finer process of cerebration than most of its competitors in the field. Dr. Lewis has a delicate feeling, which amounts to an instinct, for the interest and ambition of the developing mind; together with this there is manifest throughout a strong sense for the exact means and methods adopted and adequate to the education of the faculty of language and the art of speech in the student in the secondary stage. Other books designed for secondary schools cover in one way or another most of the same general topics, but none is at once so skillfully graded, planned so progressively, and so adequate and practical in its pedagogic method for the definite purpose for which it was intended.

The plan is inductive in so far that every rule is clinched with appropriate exercises (the fitness of these is one of the most skillful features of the book), and that the rationale of the rule is thence inferred and stated simply and briefly. Analysis and synthesis are everywhere joined on the same page. It is the sort of book which should stimulate students and aid teachers.

FREDERIC IVES CARPENTER

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO,
July 1897

An Introduction to the Study of Zoölogy. By B. LINDSAY, C. S. of Girton College, Cambridge. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.60.

THIS is a small octavo volume of 356 pages, illustrated with 124 figures and diagrams, eighteen of which are original. The purpose of the author is to supply "a simple outline sketch of the animal kingdom, so as to enable the reader to map in, as it were, his own particular field of study in its right place in the general scheme of zoölogical knowledge. It is also intended to guide the reader to the use of standard works."

The work is divided into three parts—pages 3 to 116 being devoted to the general principles of zoölogy, pages 117 to 308 consider systematic zoölogy, and the remaining pages, about 25, give advice to students as to the use of books, practical works, and "animals as fellow-creatures."

This is not a laboratory manual, but a book to be read or studied and recited from. Its aim is certainly good, for it strives to give the reader a general survey of the morphology and classification of the animal kingdom. One who is devoted to the laboratory method, where only a few forms can be studied, must feel occasionally in talking with his students that they are getting, not a bird's-eye view of the living world, but a microscopic view of a very little of it. Certainly it is a view which does not well fit one for a general examination, and "the lively recollections" of the author of her own trials in preparing for such a general examination seems to have been one of the incentives for "compiling the book" (preface).

The work is prepared in an admirable spirit, and one cannot read its pages without having a more comprehensive view of the animal world; and, if the student catches the sympathetic spirit of the author in the chapter on "animals as fellow-creatures," it will make his zoölogical paths far pleasanter and more profitable. It is with some regret that the reviewer feels compelled to say in closing that he believes the author would have done well to have waited a few years before publishing the book. If in the meantime some original work had been carried on and the books and monographs of others had been dipped into rather deeply, the author would hardly affirm with so much confidence (page 59) that "the ontogenetic development of any form of life is an expression of its phylogenetic development. This formula

serves as a key to a labyrinth of facts, which are all plain and intelligible with its aid." If the author had studied the embryology of the chicken, for instance, and had used this key, and was able to tell the world exactly what the phylogenetic history or the evolution of the chick had been in the past, she would have done what no embryologist has yet been able to do, or even to approximate. So also on page 57, a little original work on worms, insects, and amphibia would have kept her from saying: "The larva of the butterfly, like the larva of the frog, presents the likeness of an adult animal of a lower type; the young frog is a fish, the young butterfly is a worm."

S. H. GAGE

CORNELL UNIVERSITY

Elementary Algebra. By J. A. GILLET.

IT is far too common an impression among preparatory students that geometry is that branch of mathematics in which one proves theorems, while in algebra one simply ciphers with letters and solves problems by means of equations. How many students of algebra are accustomed to think of a statement like $A^m A^n = A^{m+n}$ as a theorem which should be enunciated in words with a distinct hypothesis and conclusion, and proved step by step, using definitions, axioms, and previously established laws or theorems? How many teachers insist upon the demonstration of the laws and principles of algebra? How many text-books present these proofs in such a way as to impress the student with the dignity of the science and the stability of its foundation on logic and reasoning? It is true that one great end of algebra is to use literal arithmetic in the application of equations to the solution of problems, but the text-book on algebra which does not present the subject in the form of the elements of true analysis, and the teacher who does not lead the pupil to see that here is the great instrument of analysis, the elements of which he can master only by demonstrating the various laws and principles enunciated, are robbing the rising generation of mental brawn and sinew and depriving the colleges and universities of students prepared to grapple with the analytic problem arising in the higher courses.

There are two extremes to avoid. It is possible to make elementary algebra too formal and too rigid in its proofs. It is possible to make it a mere collection of rules and examples. The author who most skillfully avoids both these extremes is to be commended. Within

fifteen years the pendulum has swung from the first extreme to the second. It is refreshing now to see a successful medium reached in the volume under consideration. It would be too much to say that the best result attainable has been produced, but the product is good. Especially satisfactory are chapters XI, XII, XIV, XVI, XVII. These demonstrations are clearly put and given with the proper ring. Another commendable feature is found in chapter X, where oral and mental work is emphasized. This should be encouraged by all the means and devices suggested in this and the following chapter or wherever possible.

One chapter must be criticised—that on quadratic equations. The solution by factoring is very important and never should be relegated to a note at the end of the chapter, as in many books, but neither should it drive all other processes from the field. In practice it should be used whenever the expression is resolvable into rational factors, but otherwise it becomes too clumsy and complex for beginners. Moreover, the solution by the general formula as usually given affords too good an opportunity to neglect in teaching the meaning and use of a formula, and in developing the theory of quadratic equations as that of higher equations is later to be developed.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

H. E. SLAUGHT

Briot and Bouquet's Elements of Analytical Geometry. Werner School Book Company.

THIS work is a translation, by James Harrington Boyd, instructor in mathematics in the University of Chicago, of the fourteenth edition of the popular French treatise of Briot and Bouquet.

Those who have read the works of French authors to any extent must have observed the remarkable manner in which they combine scientific accuracy and generality of treatment with easy and popular diction. They have the happy faculty of bringing out the salient points of an abstruse subject by a clear and even flow of language that dissolves all difficulties and makes the subject easy and fascinating. This has been explained by the fact that such treatises have not been prepared for the sake of writing text-books, but are often the reproduction of lectures whose language has been subject to continual processes of polishing and revision in the effort of the lecturer to convey his thoughts to his students most simply and directly.

The present treatise is no exception to the above rule. The mind of the student is made to float pleasantly and easily along the channel of the author's thought without danger from rocks or shoals. At the same time there are no treatises in the English language upon the same subject, outside of Salmon's, that can compare with it in scientific character, excellence and accuracy. It occupies in this respect about the middle ground between Salmon's works on conic sections and higher plane curves, and the great body of English and American text books.

The book differs from the usual treatises in some important points to which I may call attention. In the first place a knowledge of the calculus is assumed, but only such elementary knowledge as is now given in every proper course in elementary algebra. Also, most text-books, after defining coördinate systems, employ them in finding distances, areas, etc., thus keeping the student at work with which he is familiar in ordinary algebra. He is then introduced very shortly to the fundamental principle of analytical geometry—the representation of an algebraic equation by the locus of all the points that satisfy the equation—and is carried on to the study of the straight line, circle, etc., as such loci. Briot and Bouquet, however, take up this fundamental principle of loci immediately after defining the coördinate systems, explain its importance as the foundation of analytical geometry, and fix its ideas in the mind by a long chapter of illustrative examples in which the equation of a curve is obtained from its geometrical definition in the case of a large number of curves of different degrees. Another chapter concerning homogeneity which is to be omitted on first reading, and a chapter on transformation of coördinates and classification of curves, complete the first book of the treatise. The student has now a bird's-eye view of the subject. He knows what analytical geometry is, and what he is to do with it, and is now ready to enter with zest into the more particular discussion of the straight line and circle. The chapters on these loci, and a more general chapter on geometrical loci, which is to be omitted on first reading, complete the second book. In the third book the student is introduced to the general equation of second degree, and is shown how to construct its locus by algebraic solution for one of the variables. He is thus led to the complete classification of these loci, and to the various forms which the equation of second degree may take, together with the general properties of tangents, centers, diameters, axes, etc.

The properties of the ellipse, hyperbola and parabola, as deduced from their special equations, follow in natural order, together with the properties of foci and directrices and the identification of curves of second order with conic sections. The remainder of the book is marked for omission on first reading, and includes work of a more general and modern character, such as pole and polar, tangential, homogeneous, and trilinear coördinates, projective properties, etc.

It seems to me that this translation is likely to prove a useful one by furnishing the higher colleges with a course that is not so severe as Salmon's, and yet better than any that is now given in which Salmon's books are not used.

A. S. HATHAWAY

ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE,
Terre Haute, Ind.

A History of American Literature. * By FRED LEWIS PATTEE, Pennsylvania State College. Boston: Silver, Burdette & Co.

THE plan of Professor Pattee's volume is wholly to be commended. He has prepared a text-book that will scarcely be welcome to indolent or unaspiring instructors, and in so far is a public benefactor. The class in literature is yet, in many high schools, but a resting time between sterner tasks, while the teacher, sitting back and reading the pages of the lesson, perhaps for the first time, hears his class recite. Anything that helps the passing of this sort of pedagogy is to be praised. The book is hardly more than an outline, and of the sort that cannot be put into class use without supplemental reading. Even the biographic paragraphs cannot, in general, be treated as available matter for "recitation" until reinforced by references. The first thing given under each new topic is a list of authorities, after which, in succinct subordination, is the author's summary. The matter is so arranged that schools without libraries can make shift to do the work, as the author intended, by proper methods.

The full title of the work, *A History of American Literature, with a View to the Fundamental Principles Underlying its Development*, gives further intimation as to the author's purposes. Here is a rather hazardous obligation to assume. Not that professors and teachers of literature are so well advised as to what the principles underlying even general literary development really are, for the contrary is true; but they will be all the more exacting critics. It would be hardly true to

say that Professor Pattee has brought to light the principles evinced in the history of our literature. "To study American literature philosophically," he observes, "one must go back to the beginnings of the language in which it is written. A study of the literature and the intellectual development of England through the Elizabethan age should precede the thorough study of the American writers. This portion of English history is held in common by both nations. The elements of race and environment, as they affected our English ancestors, must be fully understood in order for us to appreciate the character and spirit of the founders of our nation. We must weigh the great events of British history and their influence upon the development of the English race. We must acquaint ourselves with the history and development of English thought and language; with the great minds that have shaped and moulded these from Cædmon to Shakespeare. This done, we have mastered Book I of the *History of American Thought and Literature*." All this is true, while hardly practicable before such study as this book is designed to guide, but if done would not ensure much comprehension of what either English or American literature means. We are a strong people, and descended from a mighty ancestry, but nobody should be left to infer that as the reason why we can claim as ours at least two of the greatest writers of all time. English literature is chief among the literatures of the earth only because it has revealed more of wisdom and truth to men than any other. No teaching of English literature is worthy of the name until it has made or enabled all pupils to see for themselves the transcendent genius and worth of Shakespeare. No teaching of American literature is worthy of its opportunity that does not, philosophically or otherwise, show the beauty and cunning of Hawthorne's hand, and make the meaning and the power of Emerson's seership felt. These twain are yet the glory of the new world.

There are some things in this book that make one restive as he reads. There are such signs of carelessness, or worse, as Guttenberg, and Edmund Spencer. We find (p. 3), "Beowulf, a terrible tale of war and carnage." The *Beowulf* is, of course, an epic that celebrates the slaying of three demons, and is far less truculent in spirit and matter than, we will say, Charles Kingsley's *Hereward*. In discussing what American literature is, the author begins with these sentences: "The term 'a literature' may be defined as 'all the literary productions in a given language.' By this definition (*sic*) English literature

would embrace all the writings [not 'literary' this time] that have emanated from the race speaking the English language." The good and sufficient reasons why American literature is a thing distinct are not given with much clearness, and will be missed by many learners. There are some remarks on realism that will hardly help the average student. Why not say that realism as an art is the ability to paint common experiences so that we almost mistake them for our own? The romancer paints life in the large so that we can imagine ourselves the hero in the case. Realism discovers to us the heroism in our own lives, if there is any, or shows us how there may be much.

To sum up, this is a gratefully good book, and will be helpful to all good teachers.

L. A. SHERMAN

THE UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA

Methods of Mind Training. By CATHERINE AIKEN. Harper & Bro.

IN a number of respects this little book is unique; it sets forth in a clear and interesting way a series of exercises that are capable of producing very remarkable results. In fact, some of the achievements astound us, and we are almost incredulous. But the testimony is so strong that we must believe, though we are not able to understand. The author holds that, comparatively speaking, our schools have not been doing efficient service, they have not economized properly the pupils' efforts, and have produced results far too meager for the faithfulness, intelligence, and energy employed. New working principles, new means, and new methods seem desirable. With this point of view most teachers who have thought over the matter, will find themselves in fullest accord.

From this situation the author sought a relief and the result of her inquiry is the proposed "means of saving the pupil a vast amount of mental drudgery and fatigue." She sets forth a series of illustrative exercises woven somewhat into a "system which may be characterized as a means to an end." In this very laudable effort the author disclaims to have produced "a psychological treatise." However, it is obvious that she adheres very closely to a certain psychological view, and her work is a sound and consistent interpretation and application of this view. Her studies have consisted mainly of experiments in

relation to attention and memory, and this book is a history of a practical method arising therefrom, in which psychological principles are applied in the training of attention and memory. Whatever may be one's opinion of the practicability and soundness of this system of exercises, he cannot do otherwise than speak words of warm commendation for such a well-planned and executed series of experiments by a practical teacher.

A circus feat furnished to the author a clue for the solution of her problem, the starting and guiding idea to her experimentation. She was witnessing a surprisingly successful end to a very hazardous performance, when a question as to the secret of the great skill arose. In the performances a single misstep or mistoss might have proved well-nigh fatal. The consciousness of this in the performer intensified his motive to attend absolutely. Herein lay the secret. This marvelous skill was the product of undivided and intense attention. Why cannot results of this perfection be found in the schoolroom? Motive, opportunity, and practice are wanting. The author assumes that innate curiosity, ambition, and desire to excel can play the rôle of motive and proceeded to invent means and to set forth a time for practice. This book describes the means and the results. Appeal to these motives to awaken and invigorate efforts to learn is no new thing, but centering upon them as motives for the basis of a system of exercises to develop attention in which no knowledge getting is an immediate end seems, at first, like something novel. As a matter of fact, however, it is an adroit application of a view of mental activity and a method of school work that many teachers are striving hard to get away from. If I am not mistaken the signs of the time point us strongly to the faith that correct practice is better expressed by "training *through* instruction," rather than by "training *and* instruction." But experimentation of such decided success as that described in this book may convince us differently.

Many teachers will find the opening chapter of no little value. The experiment can be read with profit by all as a demonstration of what intensely concentrated attention in an enthusiastic teacher can do, no less than of what efficiently directed energy in pupils can accomplish. A number of the exercises serve as good illustrations of tests that teachers could use in studying the working ability of their pupils. However, a great danger for theoretical and practical pedagogy arises out of the assumption of the possibility of training a power to attend

to things in general from special formal exercises. Because one acquires special power to attend to things of sight, it does not follow that he can attend with equal skill and efficiency to sensations of sound. The specific energy of nerves must be recognized, as well as the specializing function of habit and the accumulating power of memory.

L. H. GALBREATH

UNIVERSITY OF BUFFALO

NOTES

AINSWORTH & Co., Chicago, have in preparation an edition of *Selections from Plato*, containing the *Apology of Socrates* and the *Phaedo*, from the translation by Taylor, with an introduction and notes by Mr. H. T. Nightingale of the Chicago South Division High School. The book is intended for use in second year's work in study of English, or can be used as supplementary to Greek history.

THE following is taken from an interesting paper on "Music as a High School Study" by Mr. W. A. McAndrew, of the Pratt Institute High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.:

If a high school were planned on the basis of doing the most educational good for the individual and for the community, music would receive recognition. If circumstances require a high school to be planned for meeting arbitrary requirements of a committee of college professors, then those who are not going to college should be given a good course in music. Those who are going to college should be given as much music as possible.

The high school nowadays comes into direct antagonism to the musical education that the home is anxious to provide. Many a boy and girl is forced to give up his or her music owing to the press of high school studies. This means practically the loss of the musical culture entirely. To defer the study of music until after the general education is finished is to defer so long as to be too late. A school thrown into antagonism with this most humanizing of the liberal arts is an anomaly in educational progress. Yet we are all more or less in that position. The Michigan Schoolmasters' Club has been considering the claims of music instruction in the high schools, and have resolved that a music course ought to be introduced, the same length as other courses, and that it ought to consist of music one part, and of literary studies two parts, presumably selected from existing courses. They emphasize the desirability of a clearly defined scheme of musical instruction, and recommend that for college preparatory students, whose work is already a five years' course, music should be offered to those who wish it.

A concession to the demands of musical culture was made by Colonel Forbes, Principal of the High School at Princeton, Ill., and is interesting in

this connection. By the Princeton plan, a student is allowed, with the consent and advice of the principal, to substitute for studies in the high school regular lessons in vocal or instrumental music taken of some outside instructor, approved by the principal. This instructor makes a written report every month, certifying to the number of lessons taken by the pupil, the total number of hours practiced, the subjects covered and the progress made. This work counts for graduation, an amount equal to the value of the school work omitted.

There is no school, however restrained by courses of study or college requirements, that cannot do something for music. If it cannot be done in school hours, a room can be given up for practice after school is out. Though instruction is given in the course of the Boys' High School in Brooklyn, the musical interests of the boys outside of that instruction are heartily encouraged. The banjo club, the orchestra, and the glee club are flourishing organizations. The pride of the school and of the patrons of the school in these organizations is healthy and hearty. Mr. William Howell Edwards, Instructor in Latin, says: "Our voluntary musical clubs started from the suggestion of the teachers. I tried voices, and started the glee club four years ago. The clubs practice once a week, and appear in public at school exhibitions and at various concerts in the city.

THERE is no more vexed question than that of college-entrance English. It vexes the colleges, the schools, the teachers, and the pupil. The one subject of all others on which some agreement seems indispensable, it is yet more subject to controversy than all others together. Not so much has been gained, after all, by the so-called "uniform requirements in English," because, as they are put out without any pedagogical justification (wisely, perhaps, since it would puzzle all the doctors to find any saving amount of pedagogical sense in them), they are interpreted and applied differently by each institution. The question is not settled, but the problem is clearly stated in an Examination Bulletin on College-Entrance English, prepared by Dr. Richard Jones, Literature Inspector, University of the State of New York, which has just appeared. Dr. Jones has made a most careful study of the subject and has consulted a large number of eminent authorities whose opinions form a considerable and valuable part of the bulletin. There is also an extensive collection of examination papers, representing a wide range of institutions, all of which have the "uniform entrance requirements." How uniform these are in practice let these papers show; how uniform they are in theory let the signed statements of numerous professors explain. One insists that stress must be laid especially and almost exclusively on *tweedledum*, while his neighbor advocates *tweedledee* with consuming earnestness. We should advise teachers of English to secure this bulletin by writing for it to the Regent's office, Albany, N. Y., enclosing fifteen cents. It will be of much practical service, and will furnish no end of material for argument.

MILWAUKEE MEETINGS OF COMMITTEE ON COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

Two sessions of the committee were held, each at the headquarters of the Department of Secondary Education in the Pfister. All the members attending the association were present, viz., A. F. Nightingale, chairman of the committee, B. A. Hinsdale, Nicholas Murray Butler, C. H. Thurber, J. Remsen Bishop, and Wm. H. Smiley. After some general discussion of the work accomplished during the past years by the organization of special committees from various associations for the investigation of the different subjects outlined in the plan of work adopted last year at Buffalo, Dr. Nightingale raised for discussion the question of the advisability of increasing the membership of the committee in order to do away with certain misconceptions that had arisen in different quarters owing to the disposition to regard the work of the committee as merely a continuation of the work of the original "Committee of Ten." The feeling being unanimously in favor of affirming the chairman's suggestion, a motion was passed empowering him to draw up a resolution for presentation to the joint session of the Departments of Higher and Secondary Education, requesting authority to add four members to the committee, two representing higher, two secondary education, and asking furthermore the continuance of the committee and the adoption of the report of the year's work as published by the courtesy of the *SCHOOL REVIEW*, as a report of progress. The resolution was drawn up by Dr. Nightingale, and on presentation before the joint session of the departments, was at once adopted.

At the following meeting of the committee a careful consideration was made of many individuals who had been suggested as able to strengthen the representative character of the committee. The election resulted in the choice of Professor H. B. Fine, of Princeton University, Professor E. J. James, of the University of Chicago, Principal Ray Greene Huling, English High School, Cambridge, Mass., and George B. Aiton, State Inspector of High Schools, Minnesota.

There was a strong feeling that it was desirable to hold a full meeting of the committee early in the coming year, and there followed a discussion of the ways and means for accomplishing this purpose. The claim of the committee upon the general association for financial support because of the large amount of work accomplished independently during the last two years was regarded as very strong; and the chairman was instructed to present its case before the new Board of Directors. Dr. Butler's motion that the chairman invite the assistance of such members of the committee as he might elect to

present the matter to the board prevailed, and the chairman invited Dr. Hinsdale and Mr. Thurber to accompany him and address the board, if it should seem advisable. The chairman was given full power to make such assignment of work for the ensuing year to the various members of the committee as should seem to him best.

At the meeting of the Board of Directors the claims of the committee to such support as the condition of the treasury of the N. E. A. might justify were strongly presented by Dr. Nightingale, Dr. Hinsdale, and several members of the board. It is hoped that the Executive Committee of the N. E. A., in whose hands the matter has been left for final decision, will be able to give such assistance as will insure the successful continuation of the committee's work.

W. H. SMILEY, Secretary

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE OF THE MASSACHUSETTS ASSOCIATION OF CLASSICAL AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS.

[Appointed at the annual meeting held at Brookline, April 11, 1896, to confer with the examining boards of the New England colleges. Adopted by the association at the annual meeting held at Roxbury, April 10, 1897.]

THE committee wishes to preface these recommendations by the statement that it conceives its special function to be a presentation of the difficulties experienced by the smaller high schools of the state in meeting the college requirements for admission. These schools have not (it seems to this committee) been adequately represented in the deliberations and recommendations of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, the valuable results of whose labors, however, this committee fully appreciates. Comparatively few of the 252 high schools of Massachusetts are in touch with the colleges. This is not a desirable condition of things, and any measures that tend to increase local opportunities of preparation for college are worthy of careful consideration.

The recommendations offered herewith tend in the desired direction, as the members of the committee know from their own experience, and from an extensive correspondence with principals of high schools and academies; and though they are not very far reaching, the committee does not feel justified in proposing, at this time, more radical changes, since it realizes that the much-needed upbuilding of the smaller schools, on the one side, and the needed modifications of college entrance requirements, on the other, are matters of slow change not to be greatly hastened with safety.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. The committee recommends that the requirements for admission to college with and without Greek be made more nearly equivalent.

The substitutes for Greek, as now allowed by Harvard, require more time in preparation, and are, also, more difficult than the Greek.

To illustrate: To prepare for both the elementary and advanced Greek now requires three years (120 weeks) or four or five recitations a week, requiring from 480 to 600 recitations securing five counts, or points, on the whole examination.

The most favorable combination of substitutes is as follows:

A modern language, both elementary and advanced, three years (120 weeks), four recitations, 480 recitations securing three points.

Advanced mathematics, one year (forty weeks), four recitations, 160 recitations securing two points.

Advanced physics or chemistry, one year (forty weeks), four recitations, 160 recitations securing two points.

In other words, as a substitute for the five points of Greek requiring 480 to 600 recitations, seven points requiring 800 recitations are demanded.

The second mathematical requirement of advanced algebra and analytics is distinctly more difficult than the first of solid geometry and trigonometry. Could this be reduced in difficulty it would be a gain. Could advanced Latin composition be made to count when pupils offer an advanced modern language, much relief would be afforded, and without detriment to the standard of admission.

The present difficulty of the substitute for Greek forces to the selection of that subject many pupils who take it as an elementary subject intending, from the start, to drop it after examination.

The smaller schools, necessarily limited in the number of teachers, find themselves restricted to Greek, in most cases, on account of the nature and difficulty of its substitutes. Many have not the facilities for the science requirements, and the Greek is easier than the double mathematical requirement.

2. The committee recommends that no change be made in the present requirements for admission which shall increase the number of required subjects or essentially enlarge the total amount of work. This does not refer to the contemplated additions to the mathematical requirements for admission to some of the scientific schools. As a matter of fact, the committee considers that serious harm is wrought by the low standard of admission to some of the scientific schools.

3. (a) The committee recommends that adequate time be given for writing the examinations in algebra and geometry, and in the opinion of this committee one hour is distinctly inadequate. This increase in time for the examination does not necessarily involve an increase in the relative rating of these subjects. They could still be estimated as one-hour subjects.

(b) Recognizing that the work done by the commission of New England

colleges has properly emphasized the place of English in the list of requirements and has resulted in a greatly improved method of examination in that subject, the committee dislikes to have this benefit in any way diminished for the smaller high schools of the state. The annual purchase by the smaller cities and towns of sets of books which four or five years later are to be laid aside apparently forever, seems to this committee an additional burden for which there appears to be no real compensation, and a burden which will prove an accumulating one.

It is difficult to see why a novel of Scott, for instance, which is suitable in 1895 for the purpose of study and examination, is not equally suitable in 1897, and the committee recommends, therefore, that the statement of the requirements indicate the author and number of his works to be studied (as, two novels of Scott, three plays of Shakespeare), leaving it with the school to select the particular work, or works, and that, so long as the present method of examination is continued, the list of books *assigned for careful study* remain unaltered for, perhaps, a decade. Thus the chief advantages of the present plan would be retained, and a burden, increasingly serious, would be removed from the smaller communities, so many of which are providing liberally (in proportion to their means) for secondary education.

In the smaller schools where there are but one or two pupils preparing for college, these cannot be handled in a separate class, so that it is not a question merely of one or two copies of each of several books, but a section of from fifteen to thirty must be supplied with sets of the same books. The mere storage of these books will soon be a difficult matter. The burden is a real one, and this committee believes that in a few years it will be felt much more positively.

(c) The committee recommends that for sight translation in Latin, the applicants be expected to have as a vocabulary all words occurring at least three times in Cæsar's *Gallic War*, Books I-IV; Cicero's *Catiline*, I-IV; *Archias*; *Manilian Law*; Virgil's *Æneid*, Books I-VI; and that the meaning of other words occurring in assigned passages be given. A similar recommendation for Greek at sight would suggest Xenophon's *Anabasis*, Books I-IV; Homer's *Iliad*, Books I-III; *Odyssey*, Book I.

For the prose composition requirements, it is recommended that the vocabulary expected of the applicant include only words occurring at least three times (for the Latin) in one book of Cæsar and one oration of Cicero, and (for the Greek) in two books of the *Anabasis*; the colleges to agree upon and to announce in advance the books and oration.

4. (a) The committee recommends that in the case of colleges at present not accepting certificates in place of entrance examinations, those applicants who present themselves for examination in advanced subjects be credited with the preliminary requirements in the same subjects without examination.

(b) The committee recommends that there be given an opportunity for the examination of applicants, two years before entrance, in elementary subjects.

Most schools are compelled to place these subjects in the first two years of their courses, and find the regular work of the last two years much crowded by the necessity of reviews in them just prior to examination. The present difficulty is similar to that which would be experienced by college students should they be required within one year from graduation, to pass examination in the studies of the freshmen and sophomore years in addition to those of the junior and senior years. The pupils of the secondary schools, however, are more immature, and the responsibility of their work rests on the school, while college students are personally responsible. In this respect, therefore, the illustration does not show the full extent of the difficulty, but only its nature.

5. The committee recommends that where the same subjects are required for admission to the different colleges, or scientific schools, there should be uniformity in the amount required and in the nature of the examination, and that in the languages the colleges either agree upon the works to be read, or, better still, specify only the amount and kind.

The committee believes that evidence of ability to do contemplated work should outweigh in value evidence of the successful accomplishment of specified work.

In conclusion, the committee expresses the hope that these recommendations will approve themselves to the careful judgment of the examining boards of the various New England colleges and scientific schools, and that they will be adopted by them for the purpose of removing some of the present difficulties experienced by the smaller schools in fitting pupils for college.

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